MOTIVATIONS TO VOLUNTEER AND BENEFITS FROM SERVICE LEARNING: AN EXPLORATION OF MARKETING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The volunteering rates of young adults are the highest of any previous generation. Toncar, et al. (2006) suggest that the increased volunteering activity may arise from the increased integration of service-learning initiatives into collegiate classrooms, specifically that the benefits students perceive from their service-learning activities influence their subsequent motivations to volunteer. Hence, the following hypothesis is tested: A positive relationship exists between the benefits individuals perceive that they receive from participating in service-learning activities and their motivations to volunteer. The results support the hypothesis, indicating that service learning viewed as beneficial by students may lead to increased motivations to volunteer.

INTRODUCTION

Volunteering is an essential activity in society. It is a key channel through which individuals lend assistance to others, particularly the disadvantaged. Indeed, volunteers provide the foundation for numerous social and community programs by supplementing or complementing the activities of the paid staff (if any) of nonprofit organizations (Tomkovick et al. 2008). Without the availability of volunteers, many of the programs provided by nonprofit organizations would cease (Wilcox et al. 2003).

When examining volunteers, young adults (members of Generation Y) seem to warrant particular attention. Young adults volunteer at higher rates than any other generation in U.S. history (Wright 2000). Nucifora (2001), for instance, notes that nearly everyone in this age cohort view helping people as somewhat or very important. Nucifora (2001) also notes that half of the individuals in this age cohort are actively involved in volunteering. Furthermore, Fegenbush (2001) observed that volunteering by young adults increased by 12 percent during the 1990s and Farrell (2006) and Haski-Leventhal et al. (2008) note continuing increases in the volunteering activities of individuals in this age group during the 2000s.

Toncar, et al. (2006) suggest that the increased volunteering activity may be in part due an outgrowth of the increased integration of service-learning initiatives into the classroom, particularly at the collegiate level. Although service-learning initiatives provide students with an opportunity to apply their classroom learning to real-life situations, they also provide an opportunity for students to make a difference in their communities. This experience personally introduces students to the needs in their community and provides them with a taste of the benefits of helping the less-advantaged. Toncar et al.

(2006) examined the benefits which students perceive they receive from participating in service-learning experiences. These benefits, however, have not been related to students' motivations for volunteering. The focus of this study is to address this issue – can the benefits marketing students perceive they receive from service learning affect their motivations to volunteer? In other words, can a facet of students' education affect their motivations to lend aid to society and to their community? First, service learning as a pedagogy and its perceived benefits to students will be explored. Second, volunteering and the motivations of individuals to volunteer will be examined. Third, the benefits students perceive from service learning are related to their motivations to volunteer. Finally, conclusions are drawn.

SERVICE LEARNING

Traditionally, the primary goal of education has been the successful conveyance of information to students – students were viewed as vessels to fill with knowledge (Freire 1998). Recently, several have questioned whether traditional pedagogical methods, such as lecture, are truly beneficial to students' education (e.g., Bringle and Hatcher 2003). Guyton (2000), for instance, views traditional pedagogical methods as being responsible for turning students into passive underachievers and Bransford and Nye (1989) speak of an "inert knowledge problem" – a situation where students possess a significant amount of knowledge but are unable to apply the knowledge to real world problems or to make the transition from memory to action. Consequently, many in higher education are calling for widespread changes in classroom pedagogy (e.g., Jacoby 1996).

Similarly, growing criticism has been developing over the nature of business education by business

practitioners and by AACSB, the primary accrediting body of collegiate schools of business. Candy and Crebert (1991), for instance, state that although recent business graduates are full of information and theories, they are generally not prepared to solve problems and make decisions. Farazmand, Green, and Miller (2010) draw similar conclusions. It is believed that this shortcoming arises from a perceived growing disconnect between the abstract and theoretical bias of business schools and the dynamic practical business environment (Angelidis, Tomic, and Ibrahim 2004).

Service learning has been suggested as an alternative pedagogy to directly address several of the apparent shortcomings of business education (Kenworthy-U'Ren 2008). Service learning provides a means through which students can get involved with their education – students are not just passive observers in their education, but are active doers (Munter 2002). This pedagogy often forces students to examine cross-disciplinary problems, requiring them to utilize the skills and information gained in their various business courses and apply them in an integrative manner to address the projects facing them. Furthermore, service learning bridges the oft-underemphasized gap between theory and practice.

Although service learning has a long history, only relatively recently has it become widely accepted at many colleges and universities. Indeed, the incorporation of service learning into the education process has grown at an astounding rate during the past 15 years (Bringle, Phillips, and Hudson 2004). While definitive statistics are not available, it is interesting to note that over 1,100 colleges and universities are members of the Campus Compact (www.campuscompact.org), a national organization formed to support and encourage the integration of service learning into collegiate education.

Although service learning is now widely discussed on many college and university campuses, significant confusion still exists in the answer to the question "What is service learning?" Service learning is not a form of forced volunteerism nor is it merely getting students involved in projects outside of the classroom (Chupp and Joseph 2010). Instead, service learning is an "educational methodology which combines community service with explicit academic learning objectives, preparation for community service, and deliberate reflection. Students participating in service learning provide direct and indirect community service as part of their academic coursework, learn about and reflect upon the community context in which service is provided, and develop an understanding of the connection between the service and their academic work" (Gelmon et al. 2001, p. v). More concisely, service learning is "a pedagogical process whereby students participate in course-relevant community service to enhance their learning experience" (Petkus 2000, p. 64). The requirement that service learning is a part of a credit-bearing course is also frequently mentioned (Johnson 2000). Consequently, with service learning, students' education is at the core – service learning directly connects traditional curricula with concern for one's community (Kaye 2004).

Arguably, service learning is more than merely a type of pedagogy – some view it to be a philosophy of education (e.g., Jacoby 1996). "As a philosophy of education, service learning reflects the belief the education must be linked to social responsibility and that the most effective service learning is active and connected to experience in some meaningful way" (Giles, Honnet, and Migliore 1991, p. 7). Many (e.g., Fertman 1994) suggest that service learning has its origins in the philosophy of John Dewey (1941) who advocated experiential and citizenship based education.

Service learning experiences directly benefit the community and students involved. Eyler et al. (2001), for instance, observed favorable or neutral outcomes for students, community, college or university for 132 of 135 studies on service learning reviewed. Although underprivileged individuals, society, etc. benefit from service-learning activities, they are not the primary target of service-learning activities – as a pedagogy or a philosophy of education, the primary target of service learning is education (Ver Beek 2002). Hence, the benefits provided by service learning to students appear to be the appropriate target of attention.

Several have identified some of the benefits that engaging in service learning may provide to students. Kupiec (1993), for instance, suggests that service learning produces three primary benefits: more effective learning, more effective service, and more effective integration of university and community. Zlotkowski (1996) observed that service learning can build technical skills and soft skills such as effective teamwork, cross-functional flexibility, interpersonal and communication skills, and multicultural sensitivity. Moreover, service learning is viewed to allow students to transcend the limitations imposed by course structures, resulting in the ability to gain a deeper understanding of course material and to become more able to see and comprehend the linkages and commonalities between various areas (Bhaget and Ahmed 2000). Rama et al. (2000) suggest that involvement in service learning will motivate students to work harder, provide opportunities to build context for classroom learning, and afford opportunities to encounter and work with individuals with diverse backgrounds. Kaye (2004) believes that service learning can be defined in part by the benefits that it provides students. Specifically, by engaging in service learning, Kaye states that students will "apply academic, social and personal skills to improve the community; make decisions that have real, not hypothetical results; grow as individuals, gain respect for peers, and increase civic participation; experience success no matter what

their ability level; gain a deeper understanding of themselves, their community, and society; and develop as leaders who take initiative, solve problems, work as a team, and demonstrate their abilities while and through helping others" (2004, p. 7).

Although many suggest that service learning produces a number of important benefits for students, is there empirical evidence which attest to these benefits? Assessment is required to answer this question (Bringle and Hatcher 2000). The benefits provided to students by service learning to students, however, is not something that can be easily assessed. The variety of activities regarded as service learning, for instance, makes assessment problematic since each application of service learning may present students with a unique experience (Raman and Pashupati 2002).

Although such study is in its infancy (Chupp and Joseph 2010), several have attempted to empirically examine the benefits students receive by participating in service-learning opportunities. McCarthy and Tucker (1999), for instance, observed that students' problem-solving and leadership skills are enhanced through involvement in service learning. Similarly, service learning has been shown to positively affect complexity of thinking of students (Batchelder and Root 1994). Service learning also appears to improve content learning (Bhagat and Ahmed 2000). Moreover, Eyler and Giles (1999) report that service learning leads to increased personal development, social responsibility, interpersonal skills, tolerance, learning, and application of learning. Astin and Sax (1998) report that service learning is also linked to increased gradepoint average, retention, degree completion, civic responsibility, and life skills. Conway, Amel, and Gerwien (2009) observed similar findings in a meta-analysis of existing research. In addition, students report greater satisfaction with service-learning courses, the instructor, reading assignments, and grades (Berson and Younkin 1998).

Toncar et al. (2006) comprehensively examined the issue of the benefits students perceive that they receive from participating in service learning. They identified four underlying dimensions or benefits: critical thinking and application skills (practical skills), ability to communicate and work with others (interpersonal skills), social responsibility and making a difference (citizenship), and trustworthiness and sensitivity to the needs of others (personal responsibility).

VOLUNTEERING

Although service learning is not synonymous with volunteering, it often involves volunteering activity. Volunteers are individuals who give their time to help others without expecting compensation. Specifically, "volunteers (a) often seek out opportunities to help others; (b) may deliberate for considerable amounts of time about whether to volunteer, the extent of their involvement, and the degree to which particular activities fit with their own personal needs; and (c) may make a commitment to an ongoing helping relationship that may extend over a considerable period of time and that may entail considerable personal costs of time, energy, and opportunity" (Clary et al. 1998, p. 1517). The importance of volunteers to society is difficult to overestimate. As discussed earlier, volunteers provide much of the work at many human-service agencies and nonprofit organizations. Many organizations that depend on volunteers to deliver services, however, are finding that they are limited in the services that they can provide due to an insufficient number of volunteers (Allison, Okun, and Dutridge 2002). Recruiting and retaining volunteers, therefore, have become important areas of concerns for many organizations (Brudney and Brown 1990). Consequently, Bussell and Forbes (2002) suggest that many organizations are increasingly turning to marketing techniques to recruit and retain volunteers.

To be able to effectively use marketing techniques to increase the effectiveness of recruiting activities, knowledge of individuals' motivations to volunteer is necessary (Garver, Divine, and Spralls 2009). If individuals' motivations to volunteer are known, recruitment activities can be structured to appeal to these motivations (McCurley 2005). Increased knowledge of individuals, then, has the potential to aid in recruiting new volunteers (Wymer 1998). In response, Clary and his associates (1998) identified six motives for volunteering; (1) developing and enhancing one's career (career), (2) enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem), (3) conforming to the norms of, or establishing norms for, significant others (social), (4) escaping from negative feelings (protective), (5) learning new skills and practicing underutilized abilities (understanding), and (6) expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value).

Volunteering by Members of Generation Y

As discussed in the introduction, the motivations of young adults (members of Generation Y) to volunteer appear to warrant particular attention. Members of Generation Y tend to be active volunteers (Wright 2000). "Ninety-five percent indicate that spending time volunteering or helping people is very or somewhat important. Fifty percent actively participate in volunteer work in their communities" (Nucifora 2001, p. 2). Consequently, young adults may be a prime target for human-service agencies and nonprofit organizations seeking volunteers (Shields 2009). The motivations of young adults to volunteer, therefore, appear to be an especially important area of study.

The involvement of members of Generation Y in volunteering appears to originate from characteristics unique to that generation. Members of Generation Y, for

instance, tend to be much more community oriented than previous generations (Baldwin 2002). Furthermore, their quest for a better life is not materialistically or individually based, but instead is focused on improving overall society (Sutherland and Thompson 2003). Young adults possess the abilities to act upon their desires. Unlike members of Generation X, members of Generation Y are positive and upbeat about their abilities to beneficially affect society (Greene 2003). They are also action-oriented and possess the will to "get things done" (Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak 2000). Moreover, members of Generation Y possess the social prerequisites to successful volunteering, preferring to work with others (Sutherland and Thompson 2003) and preferring to work "within the system" (Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak 2000).

Level of education appears to significantly affect the involvement of members of Generation Y in volunteering activities. Young adults attending higher education volunteer at a rate twice that of those who do not (Boraas 2003). This difference does not appear to be merely an artifact of being enrolled in college. The higher involvement of members of Generation Y in volunteering is a trend that continues after graduation from college (Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer 2004). Bekkers (2005) and Davis-Smith (1999) report consistent results, observing strong positive relationships between the level that one ceases education and the extent of volunteering activities. Consequently, it is no surprise that recent college graduates volunteer at twice the rate of high school graduates and four times that of high school dropouts (Boraas 2003).

The service-learning activities performed by students likely represent one factor which leads to the positive relationship between education and volunteering. Individuals who have been attending a school which encourages community service (such as the activities associated with service learning) are much more likely to become involved in volunteering (Sundeen and Raskoff 1994). Similarly, Briggs, Landry, and Wood (2007) and Tomkovick et al. (2008) observed that individuals involved in volunteering during their youth are likely to continue to volunteer as an adult.

Involvement in service learning may provide students with the means for volunteering. As students participate in service learning, they are exposed to the needs existing in society, and they are exposed to ways that these needs can be addressed through volunteerism. Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer (2004) and Tomkovick et al. (2008), for instance, note a connection between students' collegiate experiences and their life-long approach to social issues. Furthermore, education, particularly when it involves service learning, provides greater opportunities to become socially integrated, leading to greater involvement in associations and other groups (Sundeen, Raskoff, and Garcia 2007). This social integration provides "ports

of entry" to volunteering behavior (Sundeen and Raskoff 2000). Indeed, students who become personally involved in the needs of society during their collegiate education tend to remain involved in society throughout the remainder of their lives (Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer 2004).

Moreover, Tomkovick et al. (2008) note the positive affect of service learning on future volunteering. Specifically, they observed a positive relationship between students' perceptions of the benefits provided by service learning and future volunteering activity. Hence, it is logical to expect that positive relationships exist between the benefits students perceive they receive from service learning and their motivations to volunteer.

THE STUDY

Due to the importance of volunteers to the ability of many nonprofit organizations to carry out their missions, Sargeant (2005) suggests that few topics are as important to nonprofit organizations as effective volunteer programs. Similarly, Govekar and Govekar (2002) stress the value of knowing what motivates individuals to pursue volunteering activity. The objective of this study is to begin to examine the relationship between the benefits students perceive they receive from their involvement in service learning and their motivations to volunteer.

Given the above discussion, the following hypothesis seems appropriate:

H: Positive relationships exist between the benefits members of Generation Y perceive that they receive from participating in service-learning activities and their motivations to volunteer.

Although each of the benefits that members of Generation Y perceive they receive from participating in service learning (practical skills, interpersonal skills, citizenship, and personal responsibility) is hypothesized to positively relate to each of the motivations to volunteer (career, esteem, social, protective, understanding, and value), it is unlikely that the strength of the relationships will be equal. Specifically each of the benefits perceived from service learning can be expected to more strongly correlate with those motivations to volunteer to which they most closely relate. Due to the lack of direct pertinent research, however, the differences can only be deduced at this point.

Since critical thinking and application skills (practical skills) are important to developing and enhancing one's career (career) and to learning new skills (understanding), the following hypothesis is appropriate.

Ha: Stronger relationships exist between the practical skills that members of Generation Y perceive they receive from service learning and the career and understanding motivations to volunteer.

Since ability to communicate and work with others

(interpersonal skills) is important to enhancing and enriching personal development (esteem) and to conforming to the norms, or establishing norms for, significant others (social), the following hypothesis seems appropriate.
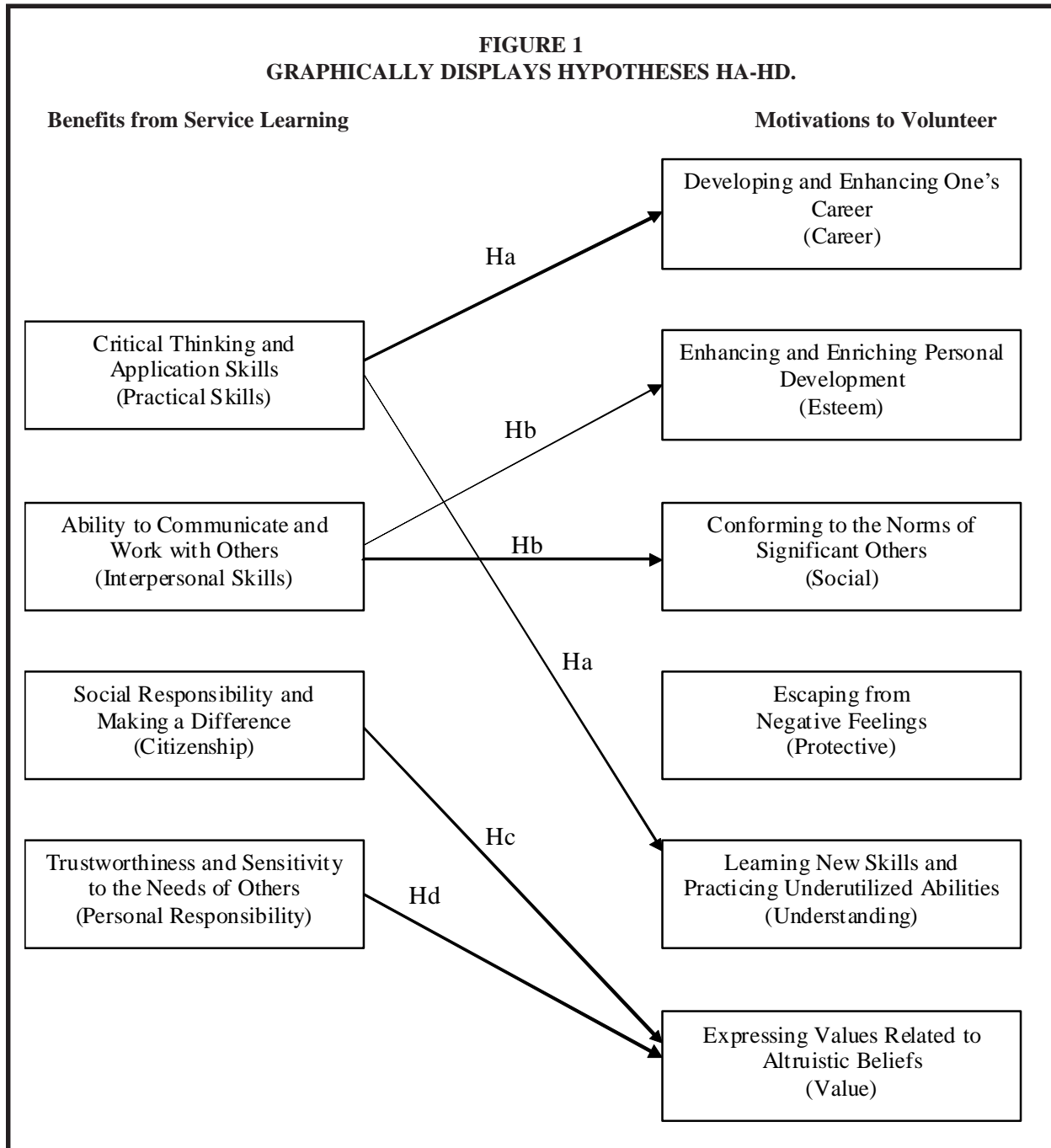
Hb: Stronger relationships exist between the interpersonal skills that members of Generation Y perceive they receive from service learning and the esteem and social motivations to volunteer.

Since social responsibility and making a difference (citizenship) is important to expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value), the following hypothesis seems appropriate.

Hc: A stronger relationship exists between the citizenship benefits that members of Generation Y perceive they receive from service learning and the value motivation to volunteer.

Finally, trustworthiness and sensitivity to the needs of others (personal responsibility) is important to expressing values related to altruistic beliefs (value), the following hypothesis seems appropriate.

Hd: A stronger relationship exists between the personal responsibility that benefits members of Generation Y perceive they receive from service learning and the value motivation to volunteer.

FIGURE 1
GRAPHICALLY DISPLAYS HYPOTHESES HA-HD.

Benefits from Service Learning   **Motivations to Volunteer**

Critical Thinking and Application Skills (Practical Skills)

Ability to Communicate and Work with Others (Interpersonal Skills)

Social Responsibility and Making a Difference (Citizenship)

Trustworthiness and Sensitivity to the Needs of Others (Personal Responsibility)

Developing and Enhancing One's Career (Career)

Enhancing and Enriching Personal Development (Esteem)

Conforming to the Norms of Significant Others (Social)

Escaping from Negative Feelings (Protective)

Learning New Skills and Practicing Underutilized Abilities (Understanding)

Expressing Values Related to Altruistic Beliefs (Value)

Ha Hb Hb Ha Hc Hd

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Given the propensity of members of Generation Y to participate in volunteering and the role that higher education appears to play in further increasing this propensity, the sample was comprised of members of Generation Y pursuing higher education in colleges and universities. Questionnaires were distributed to students enrolled in marketing courses at five colleges and universities representing different philosophical/religious approaches to education to include a broad cross-section of business students. Business students were the target of this study since they are able to bring unique skills and knowledge (e.g., strategic management, human resources, and marketing skills) to nonprofit organizations which many nonprofits lack. The resulting sample was comprised of 480 responses. The questionnaires were distributed in classroom settings.

Instruments

Several scales have been developed to assess the benefits students receive from service learning. Most, however, measure only a particular possible effect of service learning, such as the Scale of Service Learning (Olney and Grande 1995) designed to measure the development of students' sense of responsibility, the Community Service Self-Efficacy Scale (Reeb et al. 1998) designed to measure students' confidence in their ability to make significant contributions to the community through service, and the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (Moely et al. 2002) designed to measure civic attitudes and skills that might be affected by participation in service learning. In response to a call by Rama, et al. (2000) for the development of a valid instrument to identify and measure the various benefits provided by participating in service learning, Toncar et al. (2006) developed the SELEB (SErvice LEarning Benefit) scale to do just that.

The SELEB scale consists of 12 items representing four underlying dimensions or benefits: critical thinking and application skills (practical skills), ability to communicate and work with others (interpersonal skills), social responsibility and making a difference (citizenship), and trustworthiness and sensitivity to the needs of others (personal responsibility). The scale appears to be valid and reliable. The scale was developed via a three-study investigation with particular attention placed on developing a scale displaying validity. The SELEB scale is appropriate for use in this situation even though the students were not necessarily involved in service learning in the classes from which their participation was obtained. This is consistent with the use of the instrument by the scale's originators (Toncar et al. 2006). Given the widespread use of service learning in education today, it is safe to assume that collegiate students are and/or have been involved in service learning.

The preferred method to measure individuals' motivation to volunteer has also been determined to be via a self-report measure. Consequently, various likert-scale measures have been developed to examine individuals' motivation to volunteer from a functional perspective, including one-factor (Cnaan and Goldberg-Glenn 1991), two-factor (Frisch and Gerrard 1981), and six-factor (Clary, Snyder, and Ridge 1992) models. Scales developed to measure individuals' motivation to volunteer based on one-factor models and on two-factor models, however, have displayed significant shortcomings (Okun, Barr, and Herzog 1998). The most commonly used scale to measure individuals' motivations to volunteer is the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary, et al. 1998). The VFI measures six motives for volunteering (listed earlier). The VFI scale appears to be a valid instrument. Evidence suggests that the scale is reliable; coefficient alphas are typically above .80 (Clary, Snyder, and Ridge 1992) with test-retest correlations of .64 to .78 (Clary et al. 1998). Evidence also suggests that the scale possesses construct and criterion validity (Allison, Okun, and Dutridge 2002; Clary et al. 1998). Allison, Okun, and Dutridge (2002) observed that responses to the VFI scale are strongly correlated with volunteering activity. The final scale consists of 30 items measured on seven-point scales. Each of the six motivations for volunteering is assessed by five of the items. The score for each motivation represents the relative importance of that motivation to the individual (Clary, Snyder, and Ridge 1992).

Analysis

The primary hypothesis was tested via correlation analysis.

Confusion exists regarding the appropriate technique to use to compare correlated correlation coefficients (Hypotheses Ha through Hd). Although Hotelling's t-test (Hotelling 1940) is the most frequently used technique to compare correlated correlation coefficients, it is considered by some to possesses deficiencies viewed as fatal (e.g., Meng, Rosenthal, and Rubin 1992; Steiger 1980; Williams 1959). In response, Dunn and Clark's (1969) Fisher z transformation has been suggested as an alternative approach – an approach which Meng, Rosenthal, and Rubin (1992), Neill and Dunn (1975), and Steiger (1980) have demonstrated to be superior to Hotelling's t-test. The Fisher z transformation, therefore, was used.

RESULTS

The results of correlation analyses among the factors of each of the scales are displayed in Table 1. Significant (at the .05 level) positive relationships in support of the Hypothesis were observed for 21 of the 24 relationships.

TABLE 1
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE LEARNING BENEFITS
AND VOLUNTEERING MOTIVATIONS

	Service Learning Benefits			
	Practical Skills	**Interpersonal Skills**	**Citizenship**	**Personal Responsibility**
Career	**.220**	**.224**	**.285**	**.277**
	.000	**.000**	**.000**	**.000**
Esteem	**.189**	**.225**	**.326**	**.229**
	.000	**.000**	**.000**	**.000**
Social	**.119**	**.207**	**.340**	**.115**
	.005	**.000**	**.000**	**.007**
Protective	.044	.062	**.277**	.081
	.309	.150	**.000**	.060
Understanding	**.224**	**.263**	**.410**	**.219**
	.000	**.000**	**.000**	**.000**
Value	**.238**	**.253**	**.462**	.261
	.000	**.000**	**.000**	.000

The top numbers represent the correlation coefficients and the bottom numbers represent the level of significance.
Significant (p < .05) relationships are indicated in bold.

Each of the three relationships for which significant positive relationships were not observed involved the protective factor of the motivation to volunteer scale. The protective factor of the motivation to volunteer scale represents a quality different from the other factors. Unlike the other factors, the protective quality motivation to volunteer represents a motivation not based on others or on skill development. Instead, it represents a motivation to volunteer in an attempt to escape from negative feelings.

Additional analysis sheds light on the relationships observed. When Hypothesis Ha was examined, the relationship between the practical skills service learning benefit and the career motivation to volunteer was observed to be significantly (at the .05 level) stronger than the relationships involving the social and protective motivations to volunteer (see Table 2). A significant (at the .05 level) difference was not observed for the esteem and value motivations to volunteer. Similar results were observed for the relationship between the practical skills service learning benefit and the understanding motivation to volunteer – the relationship involving the understanding motivation was observed to be significantly (at the .05

level) stronger than the relationships involving the social and protective motivations to volunteer, but significant (at the .05 level) differences were not observed for the esteem and value motivations to volunteer. The results suggest that the relationships between the practical skills service learning benefit and the career, esteem, understanding, and value motivations to volunteer are stronger than the relationships involving the social and protective motivations. Hence, partial supporting evidence was observed for Hypothesis Ha – the relationships involving the career and understanding motivations are significantly stronger than those involving the social and protective motivations, but not the esteem and value motivations.

When Hypothesis Hb was examined, the relationship between the interpersonal skills service learning benefit and the esteem motivation to volunteer was observed to be significantly (at the .05 level) stronger than the relationships involving the protective motivation to volunteer, but not the career, understanding, or value motivations (see Table 3). Similar results were observed for the relationship between the interpersonal skills service learning benefit and the social motivation to volunteer – the rela-

TABLE 2
**COMPARING CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS – PRACTICAL
SKILLS SERVICE LEARNING BENEFIT**

Motivation to Volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6
Career (1)	——					
Esteem (2)	.736 .231	——				
Social (3)	**2.054** **.020**	1.567 .059	——			
Protective (4)	**3.554** **.000**	**4.121** **.000**	**1.856** **.032**	——		
Understanding (5)	.087 .465	1.059 .145	**2.455** **.007**	**4.518** **.000**	——	
Value (6)	1.198 .116	1.101 .136	**2.555** **.005**	**4.134** **.000**	.355 .361	——

The top numbers represent the coefficients and the bottom numbers represent the level of significance. Significant (p < .05) relationships are indicated in bold.

TABLE 3
**COMPARING CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS – INTERPERSONAL SKILLS
SERVICE LEARNING BENEFIT**

Motivation to Volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6
Career (1)	——					
Esteem (2)	-.024 .490	——				
Social (3)	-.350 .363	-.409 .341	——			
Protective (4)	**-3.211** **.001**	**-4.662** **.000**	**3.660** **.000**	——		
Understanding (5)	.884 .189	.966 .167	-1.328 .092	**-5.099** **.00**	——	
Value (6)	.581 .281	.632 .264	1.001 .159	**4.085** **.000**	-.256 .399	——

The top numbers represent the coefficients and the bottom numbers represent the level of significance. Significant (p < .05) relationships are indicated in bold.

tionship involving the social motivation was observed to be significantly (at the .05 level) stronger than the relationships involving the protective motivation to volunteer, but not the career, understanding, or value motivations. Hence, little supporting evidence was observed for Hypothesis Hb – the relationships involving the esteem and social motivations are significantly stronger than those involving the protective motivation, but not those involving the career, understanding, and value motivations.

When Hypothesis Hc was examined, the relationship between the citizenship service learning benefit and the value motivation to volunteer was observed to be significantly (at the .05 level) stronger for the relationships involving the career, social, and protective motivations to volunteer, but not for the understanding and esteem motivations (see Table 4). Hence, partial supporting evidence was observed for Hypothesis Hc – the relationship involving the value motivation is significantly stronger than those involving the esteem and understanding motivations, but not for the career, social or protective motivations.

Finally, when Hypothesis Hd was examined, the relationship between the personal responsibility service learning benefit and the value motivation to volunteer was observed to be significantly (at the .05 level) stronger than the relationships involving the social and protective

motivations to volunteer, but not for the career, esteem, and understanding motivations (see Table 5). Hence, partial supporting evidence was observed for Hypothesis Hd – the relationship involving the value motivation is significantly stronger than those involving the social and protective motivations, but not for career, esteem, or understanding motivations.

DISCUSSION

Service learning is consistent with the societal missions of many colleges and universities (Easterling and Rudell 1997). In response to calls by Boyer (1994) for colleges and universities to return to their historical commitment to service and to address the weaknesses identified in collegiate business education (Angelidis, Tomic, and Ibrahim 2004; Candy and Crebert 1991), service learning has become an integral component of the education of many students, including those in colleges of business (Helm-Stevens and Griego 2009). Service learning appears to directly address many of the shortcomings identified in business school education while providing students with the skills necessary for a lifetime of service, including volunteering.

Furthermore, increasing numbers of businesses are expecting their employees to become involved in volunteering activities in their communities (Tomkovick et al.

TABLE 4
COMPARING CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS – CITIZENSHIP
SERVICE LEARNING BENEFIT

Motivation to Volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6
Career (1)	——					
Esteem (2)	-1.010 .157	——				
Social (3)	1.184 .119	.344 .366	——			
Protective (4)	-.169 .439	-1.510 .066	**1.671** **.048**	——		
Understanding (5)	**2.922** **.002**	**2.268** **.012**	**-1.779** **.038**	**-3.565** **.000**	——	
Value (6)	**3.887** **.000**	1.210 .113	**2.929** **.002**	**4.477** **.000**	1.361 .087	——

The top numbers represent the coefficients and the bottom numbers represent the level of significance. Significant (p < .05) relationships are indicated in bold.

TABLE 5
COMPARING CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS – PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY
SERVICE LEARNING BENEFIT

Motivation to Volunteer	1	2	3	4	5	6
Career (1)	——					
Esteem (2)	1.157 .124	——				
Social (3)	**- 3.347** **.000**	**-2.585** **.005**	——			
Protective (4)	**-4.016** **.000**	**-4.237** **.000**	.848 .198	——		
Understanding (5)	– 1.291 .099	-.252 .401	**-2.672** **.004**	-3.440 **.000**	——	
Value (6)	– .325 .373	.726 .234	**3.158** **.001**	**3.857** **.000**	1.071 .142	——

The top numbers represent the coefficients and the bottom numbers represent the level of significance. Significant (p < .05) relationships are indicated in bold.

2008). Recognizing the value of strong communities, involved employees, and good corporate citizenship, many companies expect involvement by their employees in their communities. Indeed, several businesses are using community involvement and volunteering activity as criteria to assess potential new employees. The apparent connection between benefits perceived from service learning activities and motivations to volunteer indicates that service learning viewed as beneficial by students may lead to increased motivations to volunteer which, in turn, may lead to increased volunteerism. An assessment of the benefits that potential new young hires perceive they receive from their involvement in service learning, therefore, may provide recruiters with additional insight into the possible future volunteering activity of potential hires.

If corroborated by further research, the findings present an optimistic view of the future of volunteering. Since most students perceive that service learning is beneficial and see value in service learning pedagogy to their education (Wilson 2008), this study suggests that service learning may be preparing students for future volunteering.

A closer look into the relationships between the four types of benefits that students perceive that they receive from service learning and the six motivations to volunteer indicate that the relationships are more complex than that initially hypothesized. Although some evidence exists which suggests that the relationships between the service learning benefit factors and the motivations to volunteer which would seem to be logical given their natures (such as the relatively strong relationship observed between the practical skills service learning benefit and the understanding motivation to volunteer) are stronger than the relationships between the other service learning benefits and motivations to volunteer, such "logical" differences in relationship strength do not appear to universal. Instead, it appears that the pattern of the strength of the relationships is not as clear as they would seem to be.

Implications

The results may provide beneficial insight for nonprofit organizations wishing to recruit and retain young adults as volunteers. First, the results suggest that there is a relationship between the benefits that students perceive they receive from their involvement in service learning and their motivation to volunteer. Hence, young adults who perceive that their service learning activities were particularly beneficial may be particularly motivated to volunteering and may, as a result, form a particularly attractive pool to attract new volunteers. Contrarily, young adults who perceive that their service learning activities

were not particularly beneficial may be less motivated to volunteer and hence, may not be as effective of a group to target as potential volunteers.

Furthermore, the results suggest that there are differences in the relationships between the various benefits that students perceive they receive from service learning and the various motivations to volunteer. If corroborated by further research, this finding suggests that nonprofit organizations may be able to target potential volunteers by examining the specific benefits they perceive they received from participating in service learning and focusing on recruiting the potential volunteers whose benefits they received from participating in service learning most closely corresponds to the motivations to volunteer that their opportunities meet. On the other hand, nonprofit organizations may be able to use this information to adapt volunteer positions to best correspond to the volunteering motivations of potential volunteers.

The results also suggest that marketing professors may potentially affect the future volunteering propensities of their students. Specifically, the results suggest that marketing professors may be able to structure service learning opportunities for their students to directly address the benefits which students perceive that they receive from the opportunities. Will such actions affect the level of benefits students perceive they receive? Will a change in perceptions affect their propensities to volunteer? Unfortunately, these questions have not yet been examined.

Limitations

The study possesses several limitations which may limit the generalizability of the findings. The sample, for instance, was comprised solely of marketing students in the U.S. The generalizability of the findings to students pursuing other majors or pursuing marketing education in other countries is unknown. Furthermore, the various service learning experiences encountered by students were not assessed. Hence, whether the relationships between the benefits perceived by students from service learning and their motivations to volunteer are affected by the types of service learning activities encountered was not examined. Finally, although the direction of causality is assumed to flow from benefits from service learning activities to motivations to volunteer, the methodology used cannot examine the direction of causality.

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